#### **Interactions with Matter**

#### ACADs (08-006) Covered

1.1.4.2	1.1.4.3	3.3.1.4	3.3.3.1	3.3.3.2	<mark>3.3</mark> .3.3	3.3.3.4	3.3.3.5
3.3.3.8	4.9.4	4.11.2.1	4.11.2.2	4.11.2.3	4.11.2.4	4.11.3	4.11.4
4.11.6							

#### <u>Keywords</u>

Energy transfer, ionization, excitation, Bremsstrahlung, linear energy transfer, alpha, beta, gamma, range, Compton scattering, indirectly ionizing, pair production, neutron interactions, fission, elastic scattering, inelastic scattering, radiation shielding.

#### **Description**

#### **Supporting Material**





# Radiation's Interaction with Matter



#### Introduction

- All radiation possesses energy
  - Inherent electromagnetic
  - Kinetic particulate
- Interaction results in some or all of the energy being transferred to the surrounding medium
  - Scattering
  - Absorption

- Ionization
  - Removing bound electron from an electrically neutral atom or molecule by adding sufficient energy to the electron, allowing it to overcome its BE
  - Atom has net positive charge
  - Creates ion pair consisting of negatively charged electron and positively charged atom or molecule

#### Energy Transfer Mechanisms Ionizing Particle



Negative Ion

#### Excitation

- Process that adds sufficient energy to e<sup>-</sup> or molecule such that it occupies a higher energy state than it's lowest bound energy state
- Electron remains bound to atom or molecule, but depending on role in bonds of the molecule, molecular break-up may occur
- No ions produced, atom remains neutral

- After excitation, excited atom eventually loses excess energy when e<sup>-</sup> in higher energy shell falls into lower energy vacancy
- Excess energy liberated as X-ray, which may escape from the material, but usually undergoes other absorptive processes



- Bremsstrahlung
  - Radiative energy loss of moving charged particle as it interacts with matter through which it is moving
  - Results from interaction of high-speed, charged particle with nucleus of atom via electric force field
  - With negatively charged electron, attractive force slows it down, deflecting from original path

- KE particle loses emitted as x-ray
- Production enhanced with high-Z materials (larger coulomb forces) and high-energy e<sup>-</sup> (more interactions occur before all energy is lost)



- Charged particles don't need physical contact with atom to interact
- Coulombic forces will act over a distance to cause ionization and excitation
- Strength of these forces depends on:
  - Particle energy (speed)
  - Particle charge
  - Absorber density and atomic number

- Coulombic forces significant over distances > atomic dimensions
- For all but very low physical density materials, loss of KE for e<sup>-</sup> continuous because of "Coulomb force"
- As charged particle passes through absorber, energy loss can be measured several ways

#### Specific Ionization

- Number of ion pairs formed per unit path length
- Often used when energy loss is continuous and constant, such as with  $\alpha$  or  $\beta$  particles
- Number of pairs produced depends on ionizing particle type and material being ionized
  - $\alpha \frac{80,000}{1000}$  ion pairs per cm travel in air
  - $\beta 5,000$  ion pairs per cm travel in air

- Linear Energy Transfer
  - Average energy a charged particle deposits in an absorber per unit distance of travel (e.g., keV/cm)
  - Used to determine quality factors for calculating dose equivalence

- Alpha Interactions
  - Mass approximately 8K times > electron
  - Travels approximately 1/20<sup>th</sup> speed of light
  - Because of mass, charge, and speed, has high probability of interaction
  - Does not require particles touching—just sufficiently close for Coulombic forces to interact

- Energy gradually dissipated until α captures two e<sup>-</sup> and becomes a He atom
- α from given nuclide emitted with same energy, consequently will have approximately same range in a given material

- Calculating Range
  - Approximate general formula for range in air in cm

 $R\downarrow air = 0.56E$ 

for E < 4 MeV

 $R\downarrow air = 2.24E - 2.62$ 

for 4 < E < 8 MeV

Where: E = Alpha energy

Directly lonizing Radiation – In other media, range in media (R<sub>m</sub> in mg/cm<sup>2</sup>)

 $R\downarrow m = 0.56 \sqrt{3\&A \cdot R\downarrow air}$ 

Where: A = atomic mass of absorber

#### Sample Problem

How far will a 2.75 MeV  $\alpha$  travel in air?

 $R \downarrow air = 0.56E$  $R \downarrow air = (0.56)(2.75)$  $R \downarrow air = 1.54 cm$ 

How far will that same  $\alpha$  travel in  $^{92}210 \downarrow Pb$ ?

 $R \downarrow m = 0.56 \sqrt{3} \& A \cdot R \downarrow air$   $R \downarrow m = 0.56 \sqrt{3} \& 210 \cdot (1.54)$   $R \downarrow m = (0.56)(5.944)(1.54)$  $R \downarrow m = 5.126 mg/cm^{2}$ 

#### Sample Problem

How far will a 950 keV  $\alpha$  travel in air?

How far will it travel in  $^{13127}JAl$ ?

# Directly Ionizing Radiation What is a beta?

An unbound electron with KE. It's rest mass and charge are the same as that of an orbital electron.

- Beta Interactions
  - Interaction between β- or β+ and an orbital e<sup>-</sup> is interaction between 2 charged particles of similar mass
  - βs of either charge lose energy in large number of ionization and/or excitation events, similar to α
  - Due to smaller size/charge, lower probability of interaction in given medium; consequently, range is
    > α of comparable energy

- Because β's mass is small compared with that of nucleus
  - Large deflections can occur, particularly when lowenergy βs scattered by high-Z elements (high positive charge on the nucleus)
  - Consequently, β usually travels tortuous, winding path in an absorbing medium
- β may have Bremsstrahlung interaction resulting in X-rays

Directly lonizing Radiation• Calculating Range (mg/cm²) $R=412ET1.265-0.0954\ln E$  for 0.01 < E < 2.5 MeVR=530E-106 for E > 2.5 MeV

Where: E = Beta energy

Sample Problem

How far will a <sup>90</sup>Sr  $\beta^{-}$  travel in air?

 $R=412E^{1.2965}-0.0954(\ln E)$  $R = (412)(2.3) \uparrow 1.2965 - 0.0954$  (ln 2.3)  $R = (412)(2.3) \uparrow 1.2965 - 0.0954 (0.8329)$  $R = (412)(2.3) \uparrow 1.2965 - 0.07946$  $R = (412)(2.3) \uparrow 1.217$ R = (412)(2.756) $R=1,135 mg/cm^{2}$ 

#### Sample Problem

How far will a <sup>133</sup>Xe  $\beta$ <sup>-</sup> travel in air?

- No charge
- $\gamma$  and n
- No Coulomb force field
- Must come sufficiently close for physical dimensions to contact particles to interact
- Small probability of interacting with matter

- Don't continuously lose energy by constantly interacting with absorber
- May move "through" many atoms or molecules before contacting electron or nucleus
- Probability of interaction depends on its energy and absorber's density and atomic number
- When interactions occur, produces directly ionizing particles that cause secondary ionizations

- Gamma absorption
  - $-\gamma$  and x-rays differ only in origin
  - Name used to indicate different source
    - γs originate in nucleus
    - X-rays are extra-nuclear (electron cloud)
  - Both have 0 rest mass, 0 net electrical charge, and travel at speed of light
  - Both lose energy by interacting with matter via one of three major mechanisms

- Photoelectric Effect
  - All energy is lost happens or doesn't
  - Photon imparts all its energy to orbital e<sup>-</sup>
  - Because pure energy, photon vanishes
  - Probable only for photon energies < 1 MeV</li>
  - Energy imparted to orbital e<sup>-</sup> in form of KE, overcoming attractive force of nucleus, usually causing e<sup>-</sup> to leave orbit with great velocity

#### High-velocity e<sup>-</sup>, called photoelectron

- Directly ionizing particle
- Typically has sufficient energy to cause secondary ionizations
- Most photoelectrons inner-shell (K) electrons

- Probability of interaction per gram of absorber ( $\sigma$ )

- Directly proportional to cube of atomic number (Z)
- Inversely proportional to cube of photon energy (E)  $\sigma = Z \uparrow 3 / E \uparrow 3$
- Where:Z = Absorber atomic numberE = Photon energy

 When calculating σ for absorber with >1 element, must use Z<sub>eff</sub>

 $Z \downarrow eff = \sqrt{2.94} \&a \downarrow 1 \ z \downarrow 1 \ f 2.94 + a \downarrow 2 \ z \downarrow 2 \ f 2.94 \cdots + a \downarrow n$  $z \downarrow n \ f 2.94$ 

- a<sub>1</sub> and a<sub>2</sub> are the fraction of total electrons in the compound
- For water (H<sub>2</sub>O) = 10 electrons total
  - -H = 2/10 = 0.2
  - <u>- 0 = 8/10 = 0.8</u>

#### **Sample Problem**

What is the probability of a 661 keV photon interacting with a water molecule?  $Z \downarrow eff = \sqrt{2.94 \&a \downarrow H z \downarrow H \uparrow 2.94 + a \downarrow 0 z \downarrow 0 \uparrow 2.94}$  $Z \downarrow eff = \sqrt{2.94} \& (0.2)(1)^{1/2.94} + (0.8)(8)^{1/2.94}$  $Z \downarrow eff = \sqrt{2.94 \& (0.2)(1) + (0.8)(451.9)}$  $Z \downarrow eff = \sqrt{2.94 \& 0.2 + 361.6}$  $Z \downarrow eff = \sqrt{2.94\&361.8}$  $Z \downarrow eff = 7.417$ 

Sample Problem cont'd  $\sigma = Z \downarrow eff \uparrow 3 / E \uparrow 3$   $\sigma = (7.417) \uparrow 3 / (0.661) \uparrow 3$  $\sigma = 408 / 0.2888$ 

*σ*=1413
#### **Sample Problem**

What is the probability of a 2.4 MeV photon interacting with a molecule of  $BF_3$ ?

Ν

Ν

Ν

Ν

e-

e

Ν

+

e<sup>-</sup>

**P**<sup>-</sup>

Photoelectron

e-



- Compton Scattering
  - Partial energy loss for the incoming photon
  - Dominant interaction for most materials for photon energies 200 keV-5 MeV
  - Photon continues with less energy in different direction to conserve momentum
  - Probability of Compton interaction 个 with distance from nucleus — most Compton electrons are valence electrons

- Beam of photons may be randomized in direction and energy, so that scattered radiation may appear around corners and behind shields where there is no direct line of sight to the source
- Probability of Compton interaction 个 with distance from nucleus — most Compton electrons are valence electrons
- Difficult to represent probability mathematically



- Pair Production
  - Occurs when all photon energy is converted to mass (occurs only in presence of strong electric field, which can be viewed as catalyst)
  - Strong electric fields found near nucleus and are stronger for high-Z materials
  - $\gamma$  disappears in vicinity of nucleus and  $\beta^ \beta^+$  pair appears

- Will not occur unless  $\gamma \ge 1.022$  MeV
- Any energy > 1.022 MeV shared between the  $\beta^--\beta^+$  pair as KE
- Probability < photoelectric and Compton interactions because photon must be close to the nucleus



- To describe energy loss and photon beam intensity penetrating absorber, need to know absorption and attenuation coefficient of absorbing medium.
- Represents probability or cross-section for interaction.
- Represented by μ

µ=total linear attenuatio<mark>n coef ficie</mark>nt

 $= \mu \downarrow pe + \mu \downarrow cs + \mu \downarrow pp$ 

- Represents the sum of the individual probabilities
- Because each reaction is energy dependent, μ is energy dependent too



- Curve has three distinct regions
- Curve makes more sense when individual contributions are shown



- Dividing line between low and medium occurs at energy where PE and CS are equally likely
  - Intersection of two dashed lines



- Energy dependent
  - Tissue 25 keV
  - Al and Bone 50 keV
  - Pb 700 keV

- μ = fraction of photons in beam that interact per unit distance of travel
  - If expressed in per cm units (cm<sup>-1</sup>), then numerically equal to fraction of interactions, by any process, in an absorber of 1 cm thickness
  - μ depends on number of electrons in path, so is proportional to density
  - While the same substance, ice, water, and steam all have different μs at any given energy

- To eliminate this annoyance,  $\mu$  is divided by the absorber density ( $\rho$ )
- Gives new coefficient, called the total mass attenuation coefficient ( $\mu/\rho$ )
- $-\mu/\rho$  represents the probability of interaction per unit density of material
- Expressed in units of cm<sup>2</sup>/gm

- Theory of photon interactions predicts that attenuation ↓ beam intensity exponentially with distance into the absorber
- Written in equation form as

 $I \downarrow x = I \downarrow 0 e^{\uparrow} - \mu x$ 

 To use this equation, μ/ρ is taken from a plot of μ/ρ vs. energy, such as

Linear Attenuation Coefficient of Water



Example: 1 MeV γs are emitted by an underwater source. What effect would 2 cm of water have on the intensity of the beam.

 $\mu$  = 0.07/cm for 1 MeV photons

 $H_{X} \neq H_{V} \in \widehat{e}_{1} + \chi_{IX}$ 

 $I \downarrow x / I \downarrow 0 = e \uparrow -0.14$ 

 $I \downarrow x / I \downarrow 0 = e \uparrow - \mu x$ 

 $I \downarrow x / I \downarrow 0 = 0.87$ 

 $I \downarrow x / I \downarrow 0 = e \uparrow -(0.07/cm) (2 cm)$ 

- Neutron Interactions
  - Free, unbound <sub>0</sub>n<sup>1</sup> unstable and disintegrate by β<sup>-</sup> emission with half-life of ≈ 10.6 minutes
  - Resultant decay product is <sup>1</sup>p<sup>0</sup>, which eventually combines with free e<sup>-</sup> to become H atom
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- Most probable velocity of free 0n<sup>1</sup> in various substances at room temperature ≈ 2.2 kps
- Classification used for <sub>0</sub>n<sup>1</sup> tissue interaction important in radiation dosimetry

Category	Energy Range
Thermal	~ 0.025 eV (< 0.5 eV)
Intermediate	0.5 eV–10 keV
Fast	10 keV–20 MeV
Relativistic	> 20 MeV

- Classifying according to KE important from two standpoints:
  - Interaction with the nucleus differs with 0<sup>1</sup> energy
  - Method of detecting and shielding against various classes are different

- on<sup>1</sup> detection relatively difficult due to:
  - Lack of ionization along their paths
  - Negligible response to externally applied electric, magnetic, or gravitational fields
  - Interact primarily with atomic nuclei, which are extremely small

Probability of interaction inversely proportional to square root of energy.

 $P\downarrow i=1/\sqrt{E}$ 

Example: Determine the chance of a fast neutron interacting as it stows from 1 MeV to 200 keV.

$$\left(\frac{1 \ MeV}{MeV}\right) \left(\frac{1E3 \ keV}{MeV}\right) = 1E3 \ keV$$

 $\frac{2E2 \ keV}{1E3 \ keV} = 2E - 1$ 

 $P_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{E}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2E} - 1} = \frac{1}{4.47E - 1} = 2.24 = 224\%$ 

- Slow Neutron Interactions
  - Radiative Capture
    - Radiative capture with  $\gamma$  emission most common for slow  $_0n^1$
    - Reaction often results in radioactive nuclei

Process is called neutron activation

- Charged Particle Emission

- Target atom absorbs a slow 0<sup>n1</sup>, which ↑ its mass and internal energy
- Charged particle then emitted to release excess mass and energy
- Typical examples include (n,p), (n,d), and (n,α). For example



#### – Fission

- Typically occurs following slow <sub>0</sub>n<sup>1</sup> absorption by several of the very heavy elements
- Nucleus splits into two smaller nuclei, called primary fission products or fission fragments
- Fission fragments usually undergo radioactive decay to form secondary fission product nuclei
- There are some 30 different ways fission may take place with the production of about 60 primary fission fragments

#### Fast Neutron Interactions

- Scattering the term generally used when the original free 0n<sup>1</sup> continues to be a free 0n<sup>1</sup> following the interaction
- The dominant process for fast on<sup>1</sup>
- Probability of interaction inversely proportional to square root of energy.

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#### – Elastic Scattering

- Typically occurs when neutron strikes nucleus of approx. same mass
- Depending on size of nucleus, neutron can xfer much of its KE to that nucleus, which recoils off with energy lost by  $_0n^1$
- During elastic scattering, no  $\gamma$  emitted by nucleus
- Recoil nucleus can be knocked away from its electrons and, being (+) charged, can cause ionization and excitation

#### Inelastic Scattering

- Occurs when 0n<sup>1</sup> strikes large nucleus
  - 0<sup>n<sup>1</sup></sup> penetrates nucleus for short period of time
  - Xfers energy to nucleon in nucleus
  - Exits with small decrease in energy
- Nucleus left in excited state, emitting γ radiation, which can cause ionization and/or excitation

e

e



- Reactions in Biological Systems
  - Fast <sub>0</sub>n<sup>1</sup> lose energy in soft tissue largely by repeated scattering interactions with H nuclei
  - Slow 0<sup>1</sup> captured in soft tissue and release energy in one of two principal mechanisms:

(2.2 MeV) and

(0.66 MeV)

-  $\gamma$  and  $_1p^0$  energies may be absorbed in tissue and cause damage that can result in harmful effects
- Radiation Shielding
  - Principles applicable to all radiation types, regardless of energy
  - Application varies quantitatively, depending on source type, intensity and energy
    - Directly ionizing particles reduces personnel exposure to 0
    - Indirectly ionizing exposure can be minimized consistent with ALARA philosophy

- Shielding Gammas and X-Rays
  - Photons removed from incoming beam on basis of probability of interaction such as photoelectric effect, Compton scattering, or pair production
  - Process called attenuation
  - Intensity is  $\sqrt{2}$  exponentially with shielding thickness and only approaches 0 for large thicknesses, but never actually = 0

- Important shielding considerations
  - Shielding present does not imply adequate protection
  - Wall or partition not necessarily "safe" shield for individuals on the other side
  - In effect, radiation can be deflected around corners (i.e., can be scattered)

- Shielding Betas
  - Relatively little shielding required to completely absorb βs
  - Absorbing large β intensities results in Bremsstrahlung, particularly in high-Z materials
  - To effectively shield β, use low-Z material (such as plastic) and then to shield Bremsstrahlung X-rays, use suitable material, such as Pb on the downstream side of the plastic

- Shielding Neutrons
  - Most materials will not absorb fast <sub>0</sub>n<sup>1</sup> merely scatter them through the material
  - To efficiently shield fast 0<sup>n1</sup>, must first be slowed down and then exposed to an absorber
    - Greatest energy xfer takes place in collisions between particles of equal mass, hydrogenous materials most effective for thermalizing
    - Water, paraffin, and concrete all rich in hydrogen and excellent neutron shields

- Shielding Alphas
  - Because of relatively large mass and charge, have minimal penetrating power and are easily shielded by thin materials
  - Primarily an external contamination problem not an external dose problem